

Tucholsky Wagner Zola Scott
Turgenev Wallage Fonatne Sydon Freud Schlegel
Twain Walther von der Vogelweide Fouqué Friedrich II. von Preußen
Weber Freiligrath Frey
Fechner Fichte Weiße Rose von Fallersleben Kant Ernst Richthofen Frommel
Engels Fielding Hölderlin Eichendorff Tacitus Dumas
Fehrs Faber Flaubert Eliasberg Eliot Zweig Ebner Eschenbach
Feuerbach Maximilian I. von Habsburg Fock Ewald Vergil
Goethe Elisabeth von Österreich London
Mendelssohn Balzac Shakespeare Rathenau Dostojewski Ganghofer
Trackl Stevenson Lichtenberg Doyle Gjellerup
Mommsen Thoma Tolstoi Lenz Hambruch Droste-Hülshoff
Dach Thoma von Arnim Hägele Hanrieder Hauptmann Humboldt
Karrillon Reuter Verne Rousseau Hagen Hauff Baudelaire Gautier
Garschin Defoe Hebbel Hegel Kussmaul Herder
Damaschke Descartes Schopenhauer Bebel Proust
Wolfram von Eschenbach Darwin Dickens Grimm Jerome Rilke George
Bronner Campe Horváth Aristoteles Voltaire Federer Herodot
Bismarck Vigny Gengenbach Barlach Heine Grillparzer Georgy
Storm Casanova Lessing Tersteegen Gilm Gryphius
Chamberlain Langbein Schiller Iffland Sokrates
Brentano Claudius Schilling Kralik Katharina II. von Rußland Bellamy Raabe Gibbon Tschechow
Gerstäcker Klee Hölty Morgenstem Gleim Vulpius
Löns Hesse Hoffmann Gogol Wilde Goedicke
Luther Heym Hofmannsthal Puschkín Homer Kleist Mörike Musil
Roth Heyse Klopstock Horaz Kraus
Luxemburg La Roche Kierkegaard Kraft Hugo Moltke
Machiavelli Navarra Aurel Musset Lamprecht Kind Kirchhoff Hugo Moltke
Nestroy Marie de France Laotse Ipsen Liebknecht Ringelnatz
Nietzsche Marx Nansen Lassalle Gorki Klett Leibniz Irving
von Ossietzky May vom Stein Lawrence Knigge Kock Kafka
Petalozzi Platon Pückler Michelangelo Liebermann Korolenko
Sachs Poe de Sade Praetorius Mistral Zetkin



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Word Study and English Grammar
A Primer of Information about
Words, Their Relations and Their
Uses

Frederick W. (Frederick William) Hamilton

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PREFACE

This volume, and those which follow it in Part VI of this series, is a compilation from various sources. The occasion does not call for an original treatise, but it does call for something somewhat different from existing text-books. The books prepared for school use are too academic and too little related to the specific needs of the apprentice to serve the turn of those for whom this book is intended. On the other hand the books for writers and printers are as a rule too advanced for the best service to the beginner. The authors of this Part, therefore, have tried to compile from a wide range of authorities such material as would be suited to the needs and the experience of the young apprentice.

The "Rules for the Use and Arrangement of Words" are taken with some modifications from "How to Write Clearly," Edwin A. Abbott, Boston; Roberts Bros. This is a very excellent little book but is now, I believe, out of print. The tables of irregular verbs are the same as those used in "English Grammar for Common Schools," Robert C. and Thomas Metcalf, New York; American Book Co.

The student is recommended to study some good grammar with great care. There are many good grammars. The one used in the schools in the apprentice's locality will probably do as well as any.

The student should learn to use the dictionary intelligently and should accustom himself to using it freely and frequently.

The student should also learn to use words correctly and freely. There are many good books devoted to the study of words, some of which ought to be easily available. One of the latest and one of the best is "Putnam's Word Book" published by Putnams, New York. It costs about a dollar and a half.

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WORD STUDY AND ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Importance of the Subject

Word study and English grammar are important to the young printer for several reasons. In the first place, disregard of the correct use and combination of words is a distinct mark of inferiority and a serious bar to business and social advancement. A man's use of words is commonly taken as a measure of his knowledge and even of his intelligence. Carelessness in this regard often causes a man to be held in much less esteem than he really deserves.

In the second place, it is quite as important that the printer should know something about the words and sentences which he puts on paper as it is that he should know something about the paper on which he puts them, or the type, ink, and press by means of which he puts them there.

In the third place, knowledge of words and their uses is indispensable to correct proofreading which is itself a branch of the printer's craft. A working knowledge of words and their relations, that is, of rhetoric and grammar is therefore a tool and a very important tool of the printer.

This little book is not intended to be either a rhetoric or a grammar. It is only intended to review some of the simplest principles of both subjects, to point out a few of the commonest mistakes, and to show the importance to the apprentice of the careful study and constant use of some of the many books on words, their combinations, and their uses.

The Word Families

All the words in the English language belong to one or another of nine families, each of which family has a special duty. If you will always remember to which family a word belongs and just what that family does, you will be saved from many very common errors. These nine families are: [Pg 2] 1, nouns; 2, adjectives; 3, articles; 4, verbs; 5, pronouns; 6, adverbs; 7, prepositions; 8, conjunctions; 9, interjections. This order of enumeration is not exactly the same as will be found in the grammars. It is used here because it indicates

roughly the order of the appearance of the nine families in the logical development of language. Some forms of interjections, however, may very probably have preceded any language properly so called.

Nouns

A noun is a word used as the name of anything that can be thought of, *John, boy, paper, cold, fear, crowd*. There are three things about a noun which indicate its relation to other words, its number, its gender, and its case. There are two numbers, singular meaning one, and plural meaning more than one.

The plural is generally formed by adding *s* to the singular. There are a small number of nouns which form their plurals differently, *mouse, mice; child, children; foot, feet*. These must be learned individually from a dictionary or spelling book. There are some nouns which undergo changes in the final syllable when the *s* is added, *torch, torches; staff, staves; fly, flies*. These also must be learned individually. There are some nouns which have no singular, such as *cattle, clothes*, some which have no plural, such as *physics, honesty, news*, and some which are the same in both singular and plural, such as *deer, trout, series*. Care must be taken in the use of these nouns, as in some cases their appearance is misleading, e. g., *mathematics, physics*, and the like are singular nouns having no plural, but owing to their form they are often mistaken for plurals.

Compound nouns, that is to say, nouns formed by the combination of two or three words which jointly express a single idea, generally change the principal word in the forming of the plural, *hangers-on, ink rollers*, but in a few cases both words change, for example, *men-servants*. These forms must be learned by observation and practice. It is very important, however, that they be thoroughly learned and correctly [Pg 3] used. Do not make such mistakes as *brother-in-laws, man-servants*.

Perhaps the most important use of number is in the relation between the noun and the verb. The verb as well as the noun has number forms and the number of the noun used as subject should always agree with that of the verb with which it is connected. Such expressions as "pigs is pigs," "how be you?" and the like, are among

the most marked evidences of ignorance to be found in common speech. When this paragraph was originally written a group of high school boys were playing football under the writer's window. Scraps of their talk forced themselves upon his attention. Almost invariably such expressions as "you was," "they was," "he don't," "it aint," and the like took the place of the corresponding correct forms of speech.

Collective nouns, that is the nouns which indicate a considerable number of units considered as a whole, such as *herd*, *crowd*, *congress*, present some difficulties because the idea of the individuals in the collection interferes with the idea of the collection itself. The collective nouns call for the singular form of the verb except where the thought applies to the individual parts of the collection rather than to the collection as a whole, for instance, we say,

The crowd looks large.

but we say,

The crowd look happy.

because in one case we are thinking of the crowd and in the other of the persons who compose the crowd. So in speaking of a committee, we may say

The Committee thinks that a certain thing should be done.

or that

The Committee think that a certain thing should be done.

The first phrase would indicate that the committee had considered and acted on the subject and the statement represented a formal decision. The second phrase would indicate the individual opinions of the members of the [Pg 4] committee which might be in agreement but had not been expressed in formal action. In doubtful cases it is safer to use the plural.

Entire accuracy in these cases is not altogether easy. As in the case with all the nice points of usage it requires practice and continual self-observation. By these means a sort of language sense is developed which makes the use of the right word instinctive. It is somewhat analogous to that sense which will enable an experienced bank teller to throw out a counterfeit bill instinctively when running over

a large pile of currency even though he may be at some pains to prove its badness when challenged to show the reason for its rejection.

The young student should not permit himself to be discouraged by the apparent difficulty of the task of forming the habit of correct speech. It is habit and rapidly becomes easier after the first efforts.

The relation of a noun to a verb, to another noun, or to a preposition is called its case. There are three cases called the nominative, objective, and possessive. When the noun does something it is in the nominative case and is called the subject of the verb.

The man cuts.

When the noun has something done to it it is in the objective case and is called the object of the verb.

The man cuts paper.

When a noun depends on a preposition, it is also in the objective case and is called the object of the preposition.

The paper is cut by machinery.

The preposition on which a noun depends is often omitted when not needed for clearness.

The foreman gave (to) the men a holiday.

He came (on) Sunday.

Near (to) the press.

He was ten minutes late (late by ten minutes).

He is 18 years old (old by or to the extent of 18 years).

The nominative and objective cases of nouns do not differ [Pg 5] in form. They are distinguished by their positions in the sentence and their relations to other words.

When one noun owns another the one owning is in the possessive case.

The man's paper is cut.

The possessive case is shown by the form of the noun. It is formed by adding *s* preceded by an apostrophe to the nominative case, thus,

John's hat.

There is a considerable difference of usage regarding the formation of the possessives of nouns ending in *s* in the singular. The general rule is to proceed as in other nouns by adding the apostrophe and the other *s* as *James's hat*. DeVinne advises following the pronunciation. Where the second *s* is not pronounced, as often happens to avoid the prolonged hissing sound of another *s*, he recommends omitting it in print.

Moses' hat, for Moses's hat.
For conscience' sake.

Plural nouns ending in *s* add the apostrophe only; ending in other letters they add the apostrophe and *s* like singular nouns, *the Jones' house, the children's toys*.

The possessive pronouns never take the apostrophe. We say *hers, theirs, its*. *It's* is an abbreviation for *it is*.

Care should be taken in forming the possessives of phrases containing nouns in apposition, or similar compound phrases. We should say "I called at Brown the printer's" or "since William the Conqueror's time."

Adjectives

An adjective is a word used to qualify, limit, or define a noun, or a word or phrase which has the value of a noun. Nouns are ordinarily very general and indefinite in meaning, for example, *man* conveys only a very general idea. To make that idea definite we need the help of one or more descriptive words such as *black, tall, stout, good*.

I saw a man.

gives no definite idea of the person seen.

[Pg 6] I saw a tall, thin, dark, old man.

presents a very definite picture. It will be noted that these descriptive words have a way of forming combinations among themselves. It must be remembered, however, that all the words thus used describe the noun. Adjectives are sometimes used as substi-

tutes for nouns. This is one of the many verbal short cuts in which the English language abounds.

The good die young

means good people die young.

We should seek the good and beautiful

means we should seek good or beautiful things, or persons, or qualities, or perhaps everything good and beautiful.

When adjectives indicate a quality they have three forms called degrees indicating the extent or amount of the quality possessed by the noun especially as compared with other objects of the same sort, *a big man, a bigger man, the biggest man*. These degrees are called positive, indicating possession of bigness; comparative, indicating possession of more bigness than some other man; superlative, indicating possession of more bigness than any other man. When we wish to tell the amount of the quality without comparing the possessor with any other object or group of objects we use a modifying word later to be described called an adverb.

I saw a very big man,

indicates that the man possessed much bigness, but makes no comparison with any other man or group of men. Comparison is generally indicated in two ways, first, by adding to the adjectives the terminations *er* and *est* as *high, higher, highest*, or, second, by using the words *more* and *most*, as *splendid, more splendid, most splendid*. The question which of the two methods should be used is not always easy to decide. It depends somewhat on usage and on euphony or agreeableness of sound.

Adjectives of three or more syllables use the long form, that is, the additional word. We should not say *beautifuler* or *beautifullest*. Adjectives of two syllables may often be compared either way; for example, it would be equally [Pg 7] correct to say *nobler* and *noblest* or *more noble* and *most noble*. An example of the influence of euphony may be found in the adjective *honest*. We might say *honester* without hesitation but we should be less likely to say *honestest* on account of the awkward combination of syllables involved. Adjectives of one syllable usually take the short form but not invariably. The excep-

tions, however, are more common in poetry than in prose. When any question rises it is usually safer to use the long form of comparison in the case of two-syllable adjectives and to use the short form in the case of one-syllable adjectives. The proper use of the long form is one of those niceties of diction which come only with careful observation and with training of the ear and of the literary sense.

The word *most* should never be used, as it often is, in the place of *almost*. Careless people say "I am most ready" meaning "I am almost, or nearly ready." The phrase "I am most ready," really means "I am in the greatest possible readiness." Such use of *most* is common in old English but much less so in modern speech.

Two very common adjectives are irregularly compared. They are *good, better, best, and bad, worse, worst*. In spite of the fact that these adjectives are among the most common in use and their comparison may be supposed to be known by everybody, one often hears the expressions *gooder, goodest, more better, bestest, bader, badest, worser, and worstest*. Needless to say, these expressions are without excuse except that *worser* is sometimes found in old English.

Illiterate people sometimes try to make their speech more forceful by combining the two methods of comparison in such expressions as *more prettier, most splendidest*. Such compounds should never be used.

Some adjectives are not compared. They are easily identified by their meaning. They indicate some quality which is of such a nature that it must be possessed fully or not at all, *yearly, double, all*. Some adjectives have a precise meaning in which they cannot be compared and a loose or popular one in which they can be; for example, a thing either is or is not *round* or *square*. Nevertheless we use these [Pg 8] words in such a loose general way that it is not absolutely incorrect to say *rounder* and *roundest* or *squarer* and *squarest*. Such expressions should be used with great care and avoided as far as possible. None but the very ignorant would say *onliest*, but one often sees the expressions *more* and *most unique*. This is particularly bad English. *Unique* does not mean *rare, unusual*; it means one of a kind, absolutely unlike anything else. Clearly this is a quality which cannot be possessed in degrees. An object either does or does not have it.

Articles

An article is a little adjective which individualizes the noun, *a* boy, *an* apple, *the* crowd.

A which is used before consonantal sounds and *an* which is used before vowel sounds are called indefinite articles because they individualize without specializing. *The* is called the definite article because it both individualizes and specializes.

A may be used before *o* and *u* if the sound is really consonantal as in *such a one, a use, a utility*. *An* may be used before *h* if the *h* is not sounded, for example, *an hour* but *a horror*.

Verbs

A verb is a word which asserts or declares. In other words, it makes a noun or pronoun tell something. *John paper* tells nothing. *John wastes paper* tells something. Verbs are the most difficult of all the parts of speech to understand and to use properly. As a rule, an English verb has something more than fifty parts which, with their uses, should be thoroughly learned from a grammar. This is not so difficult a matter as it might appear, except to those whose native speech is not English. Nevertheless you should be on the guard against such blunders as *I seen, I seed*, for *I saw, I runned* for *I ran, I et* for *I ate, I throwed* for *I threw*, and the like. In most verbs these parts are regular. In some they are irregular. A list of irregular verbs will be found at the end of this volume.

[Pg 9] While the plan of this book does not call for a systematic study of verbs any more than of any other words, it is desirable to call attention to some points as being the occasions of frequent mistakes.

A simple sentence consists of a verb, its subject, and its object. The verb indicates the action, the subject is the noun (name of a person or thing) which does the act, the object is the noun to which the thing is done. Verbs have forms denoting person and number, for example:

Singular	Plural
1st I love	1st We love
2nd You love (thou lovest) formal and archaic.	2nd You love
3rd He loves	3rd They love

Singular	Plural
1st I was	1st We were
2nd You were (thou wast)	2nd You were
3rd He was	3rd They were

Verbs agree with their subjects in person and number. We all know this but we do not always remember it. Unless you are very careful, you will find yourself using a singular subject with a plural verb or the reverse. Mistakes of this sort are particularly liable to happen in the case of collective nouns, in the use of personal pronouns as subjects, and in cases where the subject and the verb are far separated in the sentence.

Those forms of the verb which tell whether the subject is acting or is acted upon are called voices. When the subject is acting the verb is said to be in the active voice. When the subject is acted upon the verb is said to be in the passive voice. Verbs in the passive voice have no objects because the subject, being acted upon, is itself in the place of an object.

Those forms of the verb which tell whether the time of the action is past, present, or future, are called tenses. They are six, viz.

Present, I *print* (*am printing*) the book.

Past or imperfect, I *printed* the book.

[Pg 10] Future, I *shall print* the book.

Perfect, or present perfect, I *have printed* the book.

Pluperfect or past perfect, I *had printed* the book before you wrote.
Future perfect, I will notify you when I *shall have printed* the book.

When adverbs denoting time are indicated care should be taken to see that the verb is consistent with the adverb. "I *printed* it yesterday," not "I *have printed* it yesterday;" "I *have not yet printed* it," not "I *did not print* it yet;" "I *have printed* it already," not "I *printed* it already."

Trouble is sometimes found in choosing the right forms of the verb to be used in subordinate clauses. The rule is:

Verbs in subordinate sentences and clauses must be governed by the tense of the principal verb.

This rule rests on the exact meaning of the forms and words used and its application can be checked by careful examination of these meanings. "He *said* he *did* it." "He *said* he *would do* it." "He *says* he *will do* it."

Note that when the statement in the subordinate clause is of universal application the present tense is always used whatever the tense of the principal verb. "The lecturer said that warm weather always softens rollers."

Those forms of the verb which tell whether the action is an actual fact, a possibility, a condition, or a command are called moods.

There are three moods, the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative.

The indicative mood indicates that the action is a fact. It is also used in asking questions.

The subjunctive mood is less used in modern than in old English. It is most commonly found in clauses beginning with *if*, though *if* is not to be regarded as the sign of the subjunctive in any such sense as *to* is the sign of the infinitive.

The subjunctive *were* should be used in purely hypothetical clauses such as "If I *were* in your place."

[Pg 11] The subjunctive *be* should be used in the hypothesis or supposition of a scientific demonstration,

If the triangle A be placed on the triangle B.

The subjunctive without *if* is often used in wishes or prayers,
God forgive him.
O, that my brother were here.

The subjunctive is sometimes used to express condition,
Had you not been a coward, you would not have run away.

The imperative mood indicates a command,
Put that on the press.

The subject of the imperative mood is only expressed when it is emphatic,

Go thou and do likewise.

Older grammarians speak of a fourth mood called potential. The present tendency among grammarians is to treat these forms separately. They are verb phrases which express ability, possibility, obligation, or necessity. They are formed by the use of the auxiliary verbs *may, can, must, might, could, would, and should*, with the infinitive without *to*.

May is used (a) to show that the subject is permitted to do something, "You may go out," or (b) to indicate possibility or doubtful intention, "I may not go to work tomorrow."

Can is used to show that the subject is able to do something, "I can feed a press." These two forms are often confused, with results which would be ridiculous if they were not too common to attract attention. The confusion perhaps arises from the fact that the ability to do a thing often appears to depend on permission to do it. "May I see a proof?" means "Have I permission, or will you allow me, to see a proof?" and is the proper way to put the question. The common

question, "Can I see a proof?" is absurd. Of course you can, if you have normal eyesight.

Must shows necessity or obligation.

You must obey the rules of the office.

[Pg 12] *Ought* which is sometimes confounded with *must* in phrases of this sort expresses moral obligation as distinguished from necessity.

You ought to obey the rules of the office,

indicates that it is your duty to obey because it is the right thing to do even though no penalty is attached.

You must obey the rules of the office,

indicates that you will be punished if you do not obey.

Those forms of the verb which express the time of the action are called tenses. No particular difficulty attends the use of the tenses except in the case of *shall* and *will* and *should* and *would*.

Shall and *will* are used as follows: In simple statements to express mere futurity, use *shall* in the first person, *will* in the second and third; to express volition, promise, purpose, determination, or action which the speaker means to control use *will* in the first person, *shall* in the second and third.

The following tables should be learned and practiced in a large variety of combinations.

Futurity		Volition, etc.	
I shall	We shall	I will	We will
You will	You will	You shall	You shall
He will	They will	He shall	They shall